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ABSTRACT

This booklet presents information for use in choosing a career in education. It is divided into five sections. Section one, "Educators in the Schools," provides descriptions and average salary information for the following jobs: teacher, educational specialist, auxiliary personnel, supervisor, and educational administrator. Section two, "Educators Outside the Schools," briefly discusses positions in research, private consulting, and work in agencies concerned with education. Section three, "Preparation for Careers in Education," considers average college costs, accreditation status of colleges, and teacher certification. Section four, "How to Obtain Employment in Education," lists various organizations where one can inquire about employment possibilities. The final section, "Choosing a Career," is a brief consideration of that general topic. "Further Sources of Information," a list of publications, concludes the booklet. (JA)

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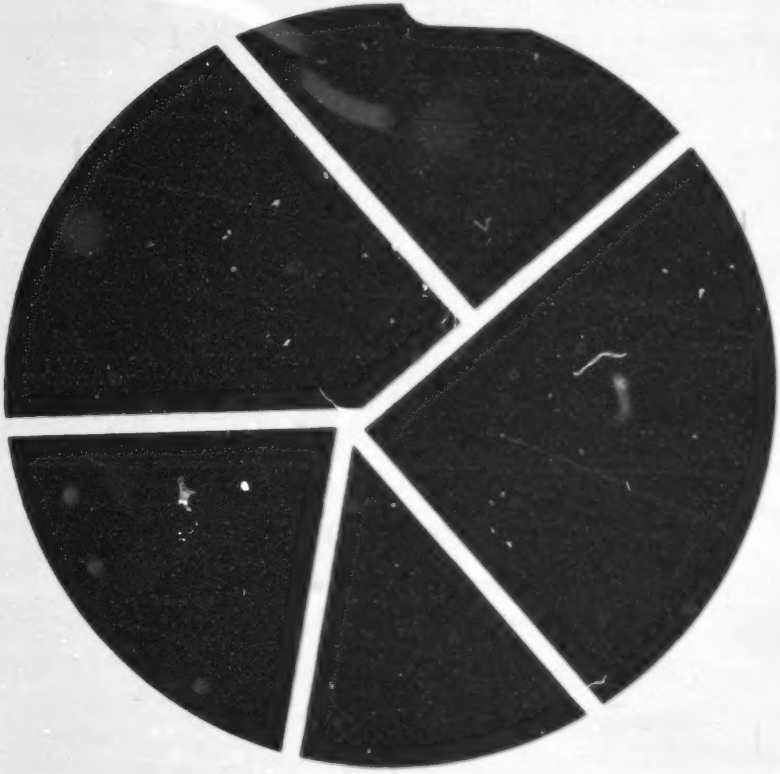

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CAREERS IN EDUCATION

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CAREERS IN EDUCATION

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LIKE OCCUPATIONS in many other fields, careers in education are developing rapidly. The nature of teaching, the best-known education profession, has changed greatly in the past few years; in the future, it can be predicted that it will continue to change. So it is with the field of education as a whole. Some careers in education that once were considered offshoots of public school or college teaching or administration have become recognized as separate disciplines. New kinds of educational work that did not exist a few years—or months—ago have emerged in response to the increasing demands made on our educational system and the new educational structures and methods created to meet those demands.

The nature of the school itself, on which the work of the public educational system is concentrated, is changing rapidly and radically; for example, the school of the future may not be confined to one location but operate in locations distributed throughout the community. Such innovations necessarily have great impact on the nature of educational occupations.

One consequence of the new variety of positions in the field of education is increased freedom of movement among careers in the field and between careers in education and in other fields. In a time when one career, or two, cannot be expected to provide satisfactions and rewards sufficient for a working lifetime, education offers a flexibility suited to changing societal and vocational conditions and maturing occupational abilities.

This book describes the kinds of careers in education that exist now. It includes some ideas about what these careers are like and ways to prepare for them. The many educational occupations offer a variety of challenges and incentives and demand a variety of personal and educational qualifications. They share one ultimate goal: to provide the citizens of this country the kind of learning they need to live productively and with self-respect.

EDUCATORS IN THE SCHOOLS

BECAUSE American society today demands of its citizens more knowledge, reasoning ability, and emotional resources than heretofore, the ultimate goal of the educational enterprise has many more components. Students must be prepared to take their places as contributing adults in a complex society: to earn a living; to be responsible citizens; to obtain satisfaction from their leisure time; and to survive with equanimity in a highly competitive, technologically oriented, and apparently impersonal civilization. The necessity of accomplishing all these things has resulted in more, not less, freedom for the teacher to determine his own particular role.

TEACHING

There is no average teacher. The stereotype of the public school teacher as a patient, overworked, and unsophisticated maiden lady is laughably unrealistic, and no new stereotype can be invented to take its place. Many generalizations about the nature of teaching also are quickly becoming outdated. It is no longer necessarily true that a teacher is badly paid, has a three-month vacation every year, is solely responsible for a roomful of students all day or every hour, refrains from political activity, or can advance only by becoming an administrator. Each of these conditions still exists in many school systems, but each has been replaced in many others because of the changes in the concepts of the function of education and the best ways to fulfill that function. Professional negotiation between school boards and staff organizations, an 11- or 12-month school year, team teaching and role differentiation, and assumption of social responsibility have already exploded the boundaries of the self-contained classroom and self-contained school. The range of functions, salaries, and working conditions in regular nonpublic day schools—which employed an estimated 243,000 classroom teachers in 1967—is even greater than in the public schools.

The public school teacher today has many roles, some of them newly emphasized. In his classes, he serves as counselor and guide to his students. He is a bearer of the culture, passing on to his students what he has received from his background and education and learning from them in turn. He administers the educational program of the school in his classes and contributes to it his own expertise. He represents and explains the school to the community and promotes the relevance of the school to its students and to society. He maintains his professional ability at a high level and contributes to the advancement of the teaching profession.

The major function of the teacher, however, is still to confront students face-to-face and use his intelligence, perceptiveness, and professional skill to develop in them the ability to reason, the habit of using that ability, and the knowledge necessary to relate that ability to the requirements of their lives. The ways in which he does this vary from level to level of education, from system to system, from school to school, and from teacher to teacher—and they are constantly changing.

Teachers themselves have created much of the increase in their professional freedom by working together in organized groups to enable themselves to fulfill their expanding roles. Educators organizations work both to improve teachers' professional competence and to elicit recognition that teachers are, in fact, competent professionals. Teachers have undertaken to maintain their professional expertise at a high level through the resources of local, state, and national organizations of teachers in general, such as the National Education Association and its state and local affiliates, and through organizations of teachers in specialized fields, such as the NEA-affiliated National Science Teachers Association or Department of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery Education. Learned societies in specific disciplines and educational honorary societies, such as Phi Delta Kappa, also disseminate valuable information on continuing and emerging educational problems and issues. Teachers have added force to their demands to work under conditions favorable to the best exercise of their professional judgment and to obtain proper compensation for their work by joining organizations capable of conducting professional negotiation. These are usually local or state educators organizations, which receive support in their negotiations from the national organization with which they are affiliated.

The changes teachers are working for are far from universally accomplished. Whether a teacher is satisfied with his role depends on his own conception of that role and on the degree to which that conception is shared by the school administration, the school board, and the local community. The teacher may be considered a responsible, intelligent, highly educated, and well-informed individual capable of creating, in cooperation with other staff members, a design for educating the children assigned him, as well as of carrying out such a design. He may be considered a dependent, unimaginative, and

minimally educated employee whose work and welfare must be cared for by a benevolent administration—a babysitter with a bachelor's degree. He may be considered a radical on his own behalf, whose involvement with others, including students, is incidental. There are many broad conceptions of who the teacher is and many gradations within each conception. The teacher's idea of himself may differ greatly from the ideas of the administration and the community, but he is increasingly able, by his professional behavior and through professional organizations, to influence the views of others.

Major factors which affect, and are affected by, concepts of the role of the teacher naturally vary greatly among school systems and geographic regions. Some such factors are salary, conditions of work, fringe benefits, and, most important, the nature of the teacher's function.

Salary.* The average beginning salary of public school classroom teachers with the bachelor's degree in school districts with 6,000 or more students in 1968-69 was $5,411 in the Southeast (where salaries are increasing very rapidly); $6,287 in the Middle Atlantic area; and $6,321 in the Far West. In 1967-68, 60.6 percent of classroom teachers received $6,500 or more. The average salary paid public school classroom teachers in 1967 ($7,296) was lower than those paid attorneys ($15,416), chemists ($12,399), or engineers ($12,717). Yet in 1968-69, average maximum scheduled salaries for classroom teachers with the master's degree were slightly more than $11,000 in the Far West, Middle Atlantic, and Great Lakes regions.

Salaries of junior college teachers vary according to region and to whether the institution is public or nonpublic. In the public junior colleges, the 1967-68 median salary was $9,165; in the nonpublic institutions, it was $7,211—12.5 percent more than in 1965-66. The regional variation is even greater: in public two-year institutions, the median was $11,072 in the Far West and $7,755 in the Southeast.

Salaries for college and university teachers differ greatly because of the differences in kinds of institutions and in teaching rank. In 1967-68, median salaries for full professors ranged from $16,596 in large nonpublic universities to $10,092 in small nonpublic colleges. Median salaries for associate professors ranged from $12,202 in large public universities to $8,645 in small nonpublic colleges. Assistant professors' median salaries ranged from $10,024 to $7,686, and instructors' salaries from $7,653 to $6,700, in the same two categories of institutions. Geographical location affects salaries in higher education as well as in the public schools; the median salary for all teachers on this level was $10,829 in the Far West and $9,546 in the Southeast.

* All figures in this section are quoted from the reports of the National Education Association Research Division listed in Further Sources of Information on pages 31-35.

Conditions of Work. Most of the states, and some districts in other states, grant teachers tenure after an initial period of several years during which the teacher gains experience and usually further education. Tenure provides teachers with the security of automatically continuing employment in the absence of just cause for dismissal. A teacher with full tenure cannot be dismissed, demoted, or suspended without just cause—which is defined more or less specifically by the tenure law or ordinance—demonstrated through due process, which also is legally defined.

All but a very few school systems grant sick leave benefits to their teachers. The typical practice is to allow a minimum of 10 days of leave annually with full pay, and many systems permit unlimited accumulation of unused leave from year to year. The health of both students and teachers is protected by provisions enabling teachers to stay away from school without penalty long enough to recover completely from illness.

A substantial number of school systems and nearly all colleges and universities now have sabbatical leave provisions whereby a teacher, after five to seven years of satisfactory service, may be excused from his teaching position for a semester or a year to improve himself through advanced professional study or educational travel, at half salary or more.

Fringe Benefits. All states have some kind of retirement plan for teachers. These programs are usually supported by annual payments of from 2 to 7 percent of the teacher's salary, matched by an equal or greater payment by the local school system or the state. Most retirement systems require 30 to 35 years of service or a minimum age of 55 as a basis of eligibility for retirement. Some or all teachers in 38 states are now covered by social security in addition to their state retirement plans. Nearly all colleges have comparable plans.

School systems increasingly provide various forms of group insurance to teachers. Such insurances as life, hospital, medical-surgical, and major medical have become more the rule than the exception. In many systems the employer pays part or all of the cost of the premiums for such insurances. Other benefits often made available to teachers include low-cost physical examinations, tuition payments, and various types of short-term leaves-of-absence for personal and professional reasons.

School systems do not provide all the fringe benefits available to teachers. Local and state education associations frequently offer credit union and insurance programs and other services, and the National Education Association provides a comprehensive assortment of financial programs, including life insurance, investment, and automobile leasing plans.

Function. What the teacher does varies as greatly as the compensations he receives. His traditional functions, unlike those of other professional educators, are familiar to all who have

attended school; his role in the future is likely to be radically different. Two trends in the way the public school teacher approaches his goals appear to be stabilizing, yet they are far from universal and may be halted or reversed. The teacher is increasingly likely to deal with students as individuals rather than as segments of a class, and he is increasingly unlikely to be alone in dealing with them. In some schools, new kinds of school organization are mobilizing teacher colleagues, nonteaching specialists, auxiliary personnel, and technological resources to help the teacher. Thus, he lectures to a group only when lecture is the best method of presenting particular material to a particular group of students. He is freed to work with small groups or individuals when this is the best method to use. He has more time to plan and prepare for his work. He has more opportunity to become acquainted with each child and his learning style and to create ways of leading each student to grasp various kinds of knowledge. In such schools, the teacher works with other teachers who have different responsibilities and different skills than he has. Each person on the teaching team is able, and expected, to work with the students in the ways for which he is best suited by personality, interest, and education. A large part of his work may consist of providing individual instruction in reading; it may consist of presenting new material in science to a group of a hundred or more students. What kind of teaching he does best and what subjects he knows best determine the work he does. He and his students may be able to draw on the resources of an instructional materials center stocked with audio and video tapes, films, filmstrips, records, tape recorders, videotaping equipment, and computer facilities, as well as programed texts, conventional textbooks, primary sources in either hard-cover or paperback editions, and reference books. Each of his students may be following an individualized course of instruction, in which the amount of time spent, pace of learning, materials used, and level of difficulty in each subject are designed to suit his own aptitudes and deficiencies. In addition, the content may be partially of the student's selection. The teacher, whether he is in elementary school or high school, may be a member of a department as well as of a teaching team; this makes it easier for him to remain close to the discoveries being made in the subject matter and teaching methods of his field.

The teacher may confront new kinds of classes. The traditional educational program consists of elementary, junior high, high school, and college. The student begins his education at about the age of 6, continues without interruption until he reaches his chosen stopping point, and does not return, unless it be to graduate school. Thus a teacher can expect to face a class of students somewhere between the ages of 6—possibly 5—and 22.

Within this sequence, the task of the teacher in kindergarten and the early grades is to orient a group of children to learning and the school experience—to make them feel that the

learning the schools provide is both possible and important for them. He seeks to provide them with basic skills, concepts, and facts to use as they grow older. Usually he is concerned with developing communications and mathematical skills, some learning in the physical and social sciences, and habits and attitudes conducive to successful living in our civilization. In the later grades, the teacher continues this process, introducing more difficult skills, more complex concepts, and a broader range of facts.

The teacher on the junior high or high school level teaches one or more subjects to different groups of students. These subjects may be classified as academic, vocational, or related to the student's development as a human being.

Junior college teachers usually have more freedom from nonteaching duties than do most elementary and secondary teachers at present. Their functions are varied: to provide technical training leading to employment, to teach recent high school graduates who intend to complete the bachelor's degree at a four-year college, or to provide adults further education in occupational fields or the liberal arts.

College teachers spend more time dealing directly with their fields of interest and less time dealing with students than do teachers in the public schools at present. Their responsibilities include not only maintaining awareness of the latest concepts developed and facts discovered in their fields but also doing research and recording the results—a function which most public school teachers do not yet have the time and facilities to perform.

Within this traditional framework, the teacher has considerable latitude in determining his role. What he determines depends to a great extent on how much thought he devotes to analyzing what he does—why and how he does it, what the results are, what he might do differently and why, what his ultimate goals are, how his activities are related to them, and the effects of the conditions under which he must work. Furthermore, even within the kindergarten-grade 12 sequence, the longitudinal organization of the school is changing. Some schools are ungraded through the third grade or beyond. The concept of the intermediate or middle school as a distinct sequence between the primary and junior high or high school levels is emerging. These new divisions necessarily affect the way the teacher plans and carries out his work, and because they are new, they often bring with them new methods and new freedom to select from among them.

The explosion of the public educational system beyond the kindergarten-grade 12 boundaries diversifies the possible roles of the teacher even more. The expansion of the responsibility of the educational system in our society has created a much more widespread kindergarten program and a growing program of education for four-year-olds, from both middle class and poor backgrounds. Two-year postsecondary institutions, many of them public, are now being founded at a rate of about

sixty a year; these provide academic or vocational education or both, and may or may not lead to senior college. Their students include not only recent high school graduates but adults seeking further vocational preparation, a fuller liberal arts background, or an avocation. Through them, postsecondary education is available in their communities to members of all segments of the community. Programs of adult education are becoming common in many forms besides the community college. They are designed for people who are functionally illiterate; who lack skills necessary for employment; who want orientation to the society—in the form of consumer education or home economics, for example; or who simply want to learn interesting new ways of using their leisure time. Many schools are now becoming community centers, open at various times to students of all ages and offering classes or the use of their facilities in the evenings, on weekends, and during the summer. Many two-year community colleges are operated by school systems.

The need is evident for more effective education for students of all ages, from all socioeconomic backgrounds, and in all kinds of locations—urban, suburban, and rural. It is now recognized that many children fail in school not because they lack the ability to learn, but because the education offered them is irrelevant to the abilities, deficiencies, and attitudes they bring to the school. The demand is great, therefore, for new ways to teach students for whom methods and materials presently in use are inappropriate and for teachers to experiment with these new kinds of teaching.

A teacher may obtain the best professional preparation and be in possession of the most current and sound educational knowledge available. He may, for example, be familiar with the most recently validated methods of providing individualized instruction. Yet, because of the great variation in school organization, he may find himself alone in a room with 30 children—or 40 or 50—with the door shut. He may spend most of his time teaching classes in subjects outside his field of interest. He may be told in detail what to teach, to whom, and by what methods. He may be reprimanded or penalized for creativity. He may be provided only one kind of material and facilities with which to develop many kinds of abilities, compensate for many kinds of deficiencies, and engage many kinds of interest. Of the many people who leave the teaching profession, most give reasons unconnected with their work. Many, for example, are women who leave to raise a family and plan to return to teaching. But a good teacher's interest in his work can be dulled, and it then makes little difference if he continues to teach for 30 years more. Whether a teacher is able to give the quality of service, and obtain the degree of satisfaction, of which he is capable depends in large part upon the kind of system that employs him. Also, and ultimately, however, it depends upon factors within the teacher himself—the adequacy and appropriateness of his preparation, his ability to create a positive relationship with his students and with his colleagues,

and the clarity with which he perceives his goals and the principles he applies in approaching them.

CAREERS AS EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS

The expansion of the responsibilities of the schools has created many new, specialized positions for educators in the schools. The number and kind of nonsupervisory positions other than regular classroom teaching have altered as rapidly as the nature of teaching itself in response to the demand that the schools not only teach students, but develop their ability to learn and assume greater responsibility for their physical and mental health. Some educational specialists do teach; others do not. Certificated educators conduct therapy for students who have difficulty in hearing, seeing, or speaking, or who have other physical, mental, or emotional handicaps. They teach children who have difficulty learning or difficulty learning a particular subject or skill, such as reading. They teach children who are physically unable—either temporarily or permanently—to attend school. They provide emotional, academic, or vocational guidance at the elementary, secondary, or postsecondary level. They deal with student dissatisfaction and problems of behavior and their causes. They offer consultation in a particular subject or concerning a particular educational technique or problem.

The educational requirements of these positions are as flexible as their responsibilities. In some cases noncertificated persons with special training on the postsecondary level are employed to provide therapy or guidance. On the other hand, the school librarian may have both a teaching certificate and a degree in library science.

One of the rapidly developing fields of specialization is learning resources. The tasks of the school librarian and the audiovisual specialist are growing and becoming more closely allied as information retrieval systems and other technological aids take a place beside printed and audiovisual materials as basic learning resources. What was once a library is consequently emerging as the learning resources center, and occupations connected with learning resources are evolving to derive the greatest educational benefit from the trend.

Because all these kinds of work are specialized, they represent opportunities for teachers to adjust their careers, by obtaining additional preparation, to suit special interests and abilities they have developed in a particular area of teaching. They also provide the education student a range of occupations distinct from regular classroom teaching and yet related to it from which to select a field of specialization.

AUXILIARY PERSONNEL WORK

Auxiliary personnel work serves different functions for different people. For some, it is an occupation to enrich the years following a completed career; for others, a part-time or full-time

career in itself. It may be an introduction to another career in education or a pause between two noneducational careers. The content and conditions of the work vary as much as the schools and the people involved, and the satisfactions and problems it creates vary with them.

The number of positions and kinds of positions available for auxiliary personnel in the schools is increasing rapidly as the professional responsibilities of the teacher become more numerous and demanding. Nonprofessional workers are supervising halls, lunchrooms, playgrounds, and bus loading; typing and duplicating tests, seatwork, and instructional materials; collecting fees; keeping records; distributing, collecting, and putting away paperwork or art materials; processing, checking, and shelving books and helping students make selections in libraries; creating posters, charts, scrapbooks, displays, and other visual aids; working with audiovisual and other mechanical equipment; doing classroom housekeeping; helping small children with their clothing; checking short-answer tests; reading and marking themes; reading with individuals or small groups; and acting as liaisons between the schools and the community or the parents. Auxiliary personnel who assist teachers with instructional tasks in the classroom are known as *teacher aides*.

The number of auxiliary personnel in a school, their conditions of work, and the kinds of work they do are determined in part by the structure, needs, and financial ability of the school and in part by the number of qualified persons available, their special abilities, and the amount of time they are willing to work. In suburban communities where there is a large population of housewives or retired persons who are college graduates, the schools may be able to obtain enough auxiliary personnel on a volunteer basis. Other auxiliary personnel are usually paid by the hour and receive no fringe benefits. Most work part of the day or part of the week.

The education and experience required of auxiliary personnel vary with the kind of work they are to do. Auxiliary personnel are generally housewives, teachers who for personal reasons do not wish to work full time or who are awaiting certification, unemployed adults or young people, or retired persons. High school or college students often find teacher aide work a useful way to sample the experience of teaching before deciding on a career. Conversely, those who enter teacher aide work without any thought of a permanent career, whether they are college graduates or high school dropouts, may eventually decide to become certificated teachers; and some school systems cooperate with universities to provide them the necessary education.

Many factors affect the degree of satisfaction auxiliary personnel find in their work. In some schools, teacher aides are a part of a teaching team, with a share in planning the team's program. In others, they simply do the work the teacher assigns them. Some systems provide thorough orientation; programs of

in-service education; and regular, frequent opportunities for the aide to discuss his work with professional staff members. Others leave the training of all auxiliary personnel to the teachers or other staff members who supervise them. Similarly, some systems take great care to assign auxiliary personnel to positions appropriate to their abilities and characteristics; others do not. Some systems have sufficient funds to assure auxiliary personnel continuing employment; others are dependent on federal grants for their auxiliary personnel programs and may have to discontinue these programs after a year or two. Some systems provide teachers with orientation to the use of auxiliary personnel, and some teachers have the personality traits necessary to work smoothly and effectively with others in the classroom. Others find it difficult to work with auxiliary personnel. The school system may or may not be a satisfying place for auxiliary personnel to work; as in teaching, however, the job satisfaction of the individual is determined in large part by his own abilities and traits of character.

SUPERVISION

Supervisors or curriculum directors are charged with maintaining a high quality of instruction in the schools. They may be assigned to a particular school or attached to the central office of the system; they may work chiefly with teachers or with administrative personnel. They are specialists in the content and method of instruction in general or in a particular subject, or in school services or instructional media.

The services of supervisors are available to teachers engaged in determining what subjects shall be taught, in what sequence, to what groups of students, and by what methods. Parents or representatives of the community also may be included in the deliberations. Supervisors are responsible for providing the school system's programs of in-service education to keep teachers informed about new methods and materials and their use. Similar programs are provided by education associations. Supervisors inform administrative personnel about equipment and materials that can improve the quality of instruction. They may observe teachers at work to assess the extent to which they are successful and make recommendations to help them increase their effectiveness. Although supervision is in general a resource position on the staff rather than a part of the administrative line, this classification may be affected by the extent and nature of the supervisor's evaluative duties and decision-making responsibilities.

Many factors determine the function of a supervisor in a given district—the size of the district and its financial resources, the immediate instructional needs of the system, its current curricular emphasis, and the proportion of teachers who are inexperienced and need special attention to help them develop their effectiveness.

In 1966-67, there were more than 6,500 instructional supervisors in school districts with enrollments of 12,000 or more. The median salary for general supervisors was $14,121; for elementary supervisors, $12,919; for secondary supervisors, $14,722; and for instructional media and audiovisual supervisors, $13,500.*

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Educational administration takes many forms, which require varying proportions of educational and administrative expertise. A competent administrator has great ability developed and directed by rigorous specialized training. The public school principalship and superintendency are two of the best-known careers in educational administration, but there are many others, both within the public schools and outside—in private schools, colleges and universities, government agencies, and businesses connected with education.

The Principalship. The task of the principal is to interpret and carry out the policies and procedures established by the school board and system administration in such a way as to provide the students in his school with the best and most appropriate education possible. He is held ultimately responsible by the system administration and the community for the quality of the program in his school. To fulfill this responsibility, he performs administrative tasks, helps maintain the quality of instruction at the highest level possible, and fosters good human relations both within the school and between the school and the community. He is aided in his efforts by local, state, and national principals organizations which provide him with materials and services.

Many factors affect the role of the individual principal. For example, the size of the system influences the size of the central administrative staff, which in turn determines the magnitude of the principal's administrative duties and the number and kind of consultants and supervisors available to help him. The policies established by the school board may be general or specific; so may the procedures set up by the system administration for carrying them out. In a small school, the principal may also teach; in a large school, particularly a high school, he may have his own staff of assistants with specific duties. An elementary school principal has more contact with his students and teachers than does a high school principal, who is more likely to work with department heads. The rapidly increasing participation of teachers in selection or creation of curricular sequences and materials and in making many kinds of decisions also affects the principal's function.

* The above figures are quoted from the reports of the National Education Association Research Division listed in Further Sources of Information on pages 31-33.

The range of freedom in decision making exercised by the principal is consequently tremendous. His major role may be that of the middle manager between the school staff and the system administration; of the headmaster, making appropriations from his own budget, selecting the programs to carry out established policies, and deciding how many of what kind of teachers he needs; of the coordinator and consultant, working with individual teachers, teams of teachers, and other school staff members to ensure that the programs planned by the instructional staff can be carried out smoothly and effectively. The principal may receive from the system administration certain amounts of preselected materials and supplies and specific kinds of teachers, along with detailed suggestions or regulations about the school program. Conversely, he may simply be accountable for the results of decisions he makes with the help of teachers and curriculum consultants, independently of the system administration. He may work with an assistant principal who assumes some of the administrative—or of the instructional—duties of his position. His duties usually include assigning teachers to classes, to advisory committees, and to extracurricular duties; preparing the daily schedule and establishing operating policies and procedures; assisting teachers with disciplinary problems; allocating materials and supplies; holding faculty and committee meetings; and conducting community relations programs.

The public school principalship has been one of the most common steps in the professional advancement of teachers, especially of men. There were in 1967-68 an estimated 65,631 elementary school and 40,177 secondary school principals and assistant principals in the United States. The financial rewards of the position differ according to the size of the school district, its location, and the level of school administered, as well as its financial capacity. In addition, the size of the staff with whom he works, his training and experience, and the effectiveness of his leadership function affect an individual principal's salary. In 1966-67, more than a third of the elementary and junior high school principals in school systems with 25,000 or more students earned between $12,000 and $14,999, and more than half of the senior high school principals in such systems earned between $12,000 and $15,999. In systems with 3,000 to 24,999 students—where the greatest number of elementary and junior high school principals are employed—the median salary for elementary principals was $10,013. More than one third of the junior high principals in such districts earned between $11,500 and $14,999. In systems with 300 to 2,999 students—which employed the greatest number of senior high school principals—more than half earned between $7,000 and $9,499, with a median of $9,000.*

* The above figures are quoted from the reports of the National Education Association Research Division listed in Further Sources of Information on pages 31-35.

The Superintendency. The superintendent of schools is ultimately responsible to the school board and, through it, to the community for the effectiveness of the educational enterprise in his school system. He is at once the leader of the system's professional staff and the chief administrative officer of the board of education. His role is affected most greatly by the size of the student population in his system. In a big-city system, he may delegate responsibilities to a large staff of assistant superintendents, administrative assistants, supervisors, and clerical workers. In a very small system, he may work directly with the instructional staff and perhaps have the assistance of one secretary. Superintendents' salaries also are affected by the size of the systems they administer. In 1966-67, 41.3 percent of the superintendents of systems with 25,000 or more students earned between $24,000 and $27,999; an additional 24.7 percent earned between $20,000 and $23,999. In the systems with between 300 and 2,999 students—which employ about 60 percent of the 14,671 superintendents in the nation—about 40 percent earned between $12,000 and $15,999, and about 30 percent more earned between $10,000 and $11,999.*

The complexity of the superintendent's task increases with the growth of student populations and the development of more complete school services. The superintendency is also being affected by the increasing professional self-determination of teachers. Today, the competent superintendent is a leader in introducing and evaluating newly proven educational practices. He is aware of the impact of every facet of the school system—from food service and school architecture to computer-assisted instruction—on the success of the educational enterprise. He is able to work with professional staff members; the board of education; federal, state, and municipal agencies; colleges and universities; private industry; community groups; and the general public to secure improvements in the quality of education his system provides. He can assess forces likely to affect the way the schools operate—such as population expansion, relocation of business and industry, and social movements—and take steps to counteract negative forces and develop positive ones.

The superintendent does not confront his task alone. His central office staff and the administrative staffs of the system's schools represent a reservoir of detailed knowledge on which he can draw at need, and they assume responsibility for various facets of the system's operation. In a large system, assistant superintendents may be responsible for curriculum, instruction, personnel recruitment and relations, in-service education, research, public relations, program evaluation and testing, or business administration and finance. Professional organizations and learned societies study the science of administration in general or of school administration in particular and publish their discoveries or developments. Consultants are available to

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provide assistance in solving particular problems or evaluating particular programs. By contributing to the administration of the school system, all these groups of people give the superintendent what he needs most to carry on his work successfully—time to evaluate, in the light of changing conditions and developing knowledge, the principles and strategies by which he brings his school system to provide continually improved education.

Administration in Higher Education. Administrative personnel in colleges and universities are less involved in the selection and evaluation of educational methods and materials than are school system administrators. Because such institutions in general derive their funds from state and federal government sources and private endowments, and their students come from a wide geographic area, their administrators have fewer dealings with local agencies and citizens. On the other hand, students of college age have developed greater independence of thought and behavior than those in public schools and therefore demand more of the administrator's attention and time.

RELATED FIELDS

Specialists in many fields other than education are involved in the school system. Schoolchildren require the services of doctors and nurses, dentists, psychologists, psychiatrists, and many kinds of diagnostic personnel, either within the school for evaluation and for treatment of minor disabilities or outside the school as a result of referral. Social workers are needed to advise and assist students' families and to improve communication between families and teachers, counselors, or administrators. Librarians and dieticians are other members of independent professions who may be employed in the schools. People in all these fields need special preparation to deal with the problems and needs of the young within the structure of the school system.

EDUCATORS OUTSIDE THE SCHOOLS

MANY OCCUPATIONS in education are not necessarily based in learning institutions; they may be located in, or sponsored by, such institutions or other agencies. Because of the new emphasis on education throughout our nation, educational occupations are growing in number and developing quickly; for the same reason, careers in education are becoming available in almost every institution of American society.

RESEARCH

Educational research is conducted under many auspices and in many fields. Federal educational agencies, regional educational research laboratories, state departments of education, and some of the largest school systems conduct research full time, make grants to persons proposing to undertake specific research projects, or employ researchers to make specific studies. College and university faculty members regularly conduct research, usually with the help of graduate students or other assistants and with laboratory schools or local public schools as testing grounds. Research centers specializing in the development of many kinds of instructional media or of new ways to organize curriculums may be sponsored by public agencies or by private institutions or industry.

Areas of educational research are numerous and often overlapping. Educational psychology deals with intellectual and emotional growth and development and with ways in which learning takes place. It seeks to discover better ways of encouraging various kinds of learning in student populations of varying ages, abilities, and backgrounds. Research in educational technology is aimed at developing media and better ways of using them. Educational historians trace the pattern of movements in education to discover what forces affect educational goals and methods. Philosophers strive to articulate the principles traditionally underlying the educational enterprise.

to evaluate these, and to formulate new ones adapted to new conditions. Economists study both ways of most effectively financing and budgeting for the educational system and the changing impact of education on the economic life of the individual student and of the nation. Sociologists study the sources and consider the probable results of movements and relationships among groups of students, school staff members, and citizens outside the schools, and interactions among these groups. Political scientists trace the effects the schools and municipal, state, or federal agencies have on one another and seek ways to make these relationships more productive.

PRIVATE CONSULTING

A career in education which has recently expanded greatly is that of educational consultant. The educational consultant may be a university professor who consults on a free-lance basis or as a member of a university consultant bureau; he may be self-employed or part of an independent consulting firm. His services may be used by school systems, educational agencies, or institutions. He is an expert in a particular aspect of education and may provide in-service instruction in that aspect, assistance in solving a particular problem, or information on a particular issue. A firm of consultants may analyze an entire school system, identify its educational assets and liabilities, and make recommendations for improvement.

WORK IN AGENCIES CONCERNED WITH EDUCATION

Many kinds of agencies, both public and private, require the services of teachers or of consultants, researchers, social scientists, technologists, or administrators specializing in education or some facet of it. A small but rapidly growing field is organization work. Educators organizations on the local, state, and national levels are developing staffs of experts in different aspects of education and in organization operation, supported by administrative, clerical, and communications workers. Careers in organizations of this type are becoming more numerous as the number of educators multiplies and the services they require to maintain high standards of competence and obtain appropriate compensation become more comprehensive and complex.

Organizations of parents or other citizens interested in education or some facet of it are numerous, and many civic, cultural, fraternal, occupational, and charitable organizations have divisions concerned with education. Some organizations offer part-time employment which may lead into full-time careers in an educational occupation.

The federal government employs more than 1,750 professional staff members in the Office of Education alone, and many more in other agencies and departments. State depart-

ments of education have increased their professional staffs from a nationwide total of less than 6,500 in 1965 to an estimated 9,500 in 1968, and they are continuing to expand rapidly. Social service agencies often require educational specialists to maintain liaison with the schools or to inform the public. Businesses may provide their employees with vocational training or contract with public agencies to provide instruction to citizens. Private schools for adults offer general, vocational, or language instruction. Many foundations support educational projects and require persons knowledgeable about education to evaluate proposals and maintain contact with grantees.

PREPARATION FOR CAREERS IN EDUCATION

THERE are many ways to prepare for careers in education. A bachelor's degree is required for almost all of them except auxiliary personnel work. All states require the four-year degree for secondary school teachers; all but five require it for elementary teachers, and, of these, two have provided for the degree requirement by 1969 and 1972 respectively. Increasingly, the master's degree is expected of those considered to be fully qualified teachers, and some states require beginning teachers to obtain this degree within a specific period of time if they are to continue teaching. Many school systems and many education associations provide teachers programs of in-service education to maintain their professional knowledge and skills at the highest level possible.

More preparation is required of those entering the teaching profession at postsecondary levels; a master's degree is generally the minimum preparation for junior college teachers, and four-year colleges and universities seek faculty members who either have doctoral degrees or are working toward them. Professional education careers other than teaching—school or system administration, for example—generally require between one and three years of specialized graduate study, and some teaching experience is valuable in many of them.

The four- or five-year program for teachers consists of general education, specialized education in the fields the student expects to teach, and professional education. This last includes study of the history and philosophy of education and learning; the psychology, growth, and development of children; teaching techniques; classroom guidance; tests and measurements; and curriculum and organization.

An important part of a teacher's professional education is supervised student teaching, usually done in the senior year of college. This offers opportunities for practical application of what the prospective teacher has learned, through actual classroom teaching under the supervision of an experienced teacher.

College students are increasingly using opportunities for classroom experience as teacher aides even earlier in their college years. Internships are becoming commonly available, in which students serve as teachers, receive salaries, and work under supervision. These kinds of interaction between the schools and the institutions that train teachers can provide valuable information concerning what the schools need from their teachers and how teacher education programs can provide for these needs.

Teacher education programs are available in 1,200 institutions accredited by their states. Of these, the greatest number by far are private liberal arts colleges (598), universities (305), and public general colleges (207). The others are junior colleges (39), technical schools (31), teachers colleges (19), or unclassified (1). In 1964, 53 percent of the graduates prepared to teach came from private liberal arts or public general colleges; 41.9 percent came from universities; and 5.1 percent, from teachers colleges.*

Preparation for teaching consisting of a bachelor of arts or science degree and a master of arts in teaching (MAT) is a regular degree program through which people with bachelor's degrees in liberal arts can obtain certification as teachers. The MAT program may be one or two years in length and includes education courses, specialized subject matter preparation, and student teaching or internship.

The Teacher Corps, a federal program, and programs like it sponsored by foundations or similar groups and local school districts provide college graduates in fields other than education with training in teaching the disadvantaged, leading to a master's degree and teaching certification. The Teacher Corps also accepts some applicants with only two years' college education. This program provides participants with an intensive preservice course, similar to that offered by the Peace Corps, followed by education courses in a college or university, experience as teacher aides and then as solo teachers or teaching team members, and experience in working with the communities in which their schools are located. Each group of five trainees works with a certificated teacher experienced in teaching the disadvantaged.

The MAT, Teacher Corps, and other programs sponsored by colleges and universities, state departments of education, and local school systems make it possible for persons whose completed education is in other fields to begin careers in education. In some cases, such persons can gain classroom experience while they complete the requirements for certification. Special certification programs are available in some states for specialized groups such as military personnel and Peace Corps returnees. Development has begun of programs to enable per-

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sons who are not college graduates to fulfill certification requirements while working part time or alternate terms in the schools.

COLLEGE COSTS

The cost of attending college rises each year, but each year also brings new ways to help students meet their economic needs.

Costs depend on the college chosen and one's personal living habits. Average college expenditures at four-year institutions range from around $1,050 to $3,200 a year. In general, costs to the individual are less at publicly supported universities and colleges than at private schools.

Loans, scholarships, and work-study programs are some of the methods by which students meet educational costs. The best source of information on such matters is the financial-aid officer of the college.

Four programs of federal assistance in financing a college education are administered by the Division of Student Financial Aid, U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20202. These programs are college work-study, National Defense Education Act student loans, Educational Opportunity Grants, and guaranteed loans. The details of each program change periodically as Congress enacts new legislation to implement them.

The colleges and universities themselves make available various kinds of scholarships. Many state departments of education offer scholarships or low-cost loans to state residents. Social, civic, and fraternal organizations in some communities offer scholarships or loans. So do local parent-teacher associations, teachers associations, church groups, and industrial groups and corporations.

Students often help finance their college education by working at summer or part-time jobs. College student-aid officers offer assistance to students who wish to find part-time jobs while enrolled in college.

ACCREDITATION

Accreditation is one important factor to consider when choosing a college. Accreditation is a process whereby an agency indicates that a college or a university or a program of study has met certain predetermined qualifications and standards. There are three kinds of accreditation of teacher education institutions—state, regional, and national.

State approval is basic, because it generally assures graduates of approved four-year teacher education programs that they will be eligible for certification to teach in the state.

Regional accreditation indicates the adequacy of the institution as a whole, including faculty, curriculum, and facilities.

Accreditation by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education ensures that an institution has met national standards for its program of teacher education.

The current catalog of a college or university almost always indicates the kinds of accreditation held. Annual lists of approved teacher education institutions within a given state are generally available on request from the state department of education. A list of institutions holding NCATE accreditation for their programs of teacher education can be obtained from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1750 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. A complete list of teacher education institutions, showing accreditation and types of programs offered by each, will be found in *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States*. This publication is updated every third year by the NEA National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards in cooperation with the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification.

CERTIFICATION

Each of the states defines the legal requirements for various kinds of positions in its public schools. Educators who qualify receive a document called a license, a certificate, or a credential. The requirements vary from state to state and in accordance with job responsibilities—subject or level taught or type of service performed. In most states a certificate not only provides a license to hold a position in the public schools but also specifies any limitations concerning subjects to be taught or other duties.

In recent years it has become easier for a person who is fully qualified in one state to meet certification requirements in other states. For example, approximately 30 states now grant regular initial teaching certificates under most circumstances to out-of-state applicants who have completed approved teacher education programs in institutions accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

HOW TO OBTAIN EMPLOYMENT IN EDUCATION

THE PRESENT shortages mean that teaching positions are relatively easy to obtain; the problem is to locate and know how to get the best jobs available. Openings are unevenly distributed among the various specializations and around the country.

Following is a list of the key sources of information on available positions:

- The college or university placement bureau.
- The superintendent of schools or director of personnel in a particular school district. Names and addresses of these officers are listed in the U.S. Office of Education's annual *Education Directory*, Part 2, "Public School Systems" (available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20401).
- The state department of education and the state education association. Many of these offices maintain position listings or placement services.
- U.S. Employment Service. Offices throughout the country list vacancies and help place educators without charge.
- Commercial teachers agencies. A complete list is available from the National Association of Teachers Agencies, Room 400, 64 E. Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois 60604.
- NEA*SEARCH. This is a computerized education locator service providing a nationwide clearinghouse to inform prospective employers and employees of available applicants and positions. The address is 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.
- Association for School, College, and University Staffing (ASCUS). This is another placement service, located at the National Communication and Services Center, Inc., Box 166, Hershey, Pennsylvania 17033.

CHOOSING A CAREER

THE FACT that a working lifetime is now likely to include several careers has not reduced the importance of career choice. A second, third, or even fourth career is often built upon or related to the first, and each decision affects those that will follow it. Investment of time and attention in selection of suitable occupations is repaid by career satisfaction throughout a working lifetime.

For those who are selecting a first career, and who therefore know little about the job market or the experience of work, careful study is necessary to prevent errors, which can be costly in both money and time. Selection of a suitable occupation requires accurate knowledge of oneself and of the nature of various kinds of work and the ability to project both of these into the future. Vocational counseling and aptitude testing are available to students in most high schools and colleges, and agencies sponsored by the different levels of government offer this assistance to others. Educational materials on occupations also are readily available from governmental agencies and from organizations connected with specific occupations. The prospective worker can obtain further information on the advantages and disadvantages of specific occupations from employed friends and relations and by personal observation. Well-founded knowledge of his own abilities and of what he wants from his career in terms of remunerations, working conditions, opportunities for growth, social status, and role is crucially important. Once the prospective worker has decided that a specific kind of work is likely to be suited to his abilities and meet his requirements, a period of temporary employment connected with that occupation is valuable as a test of the decision.

Persons who have had occupational experience usually know something about different kinds of jobs related to their work and have already formulated ideas about their vocational abilities and requirements. If they are contemplating a change to

a completely different kind of work, however, it is advisable for them to use all available means of evaluating their knowledge of themselves and of the work that interests them, and to seek some preliminary experience before committing themselves to a new occupation.

The field of education offers the occupational flexibility suitable to a society in which every worker can expect to embark upon several different careers as his abilities and interests mature and the nature of society and employment changes. Because the careers now open in education are numerous and developing rapidly, educators have great opportunity to take on increased or different responsibilities. Because many of these careers require expertise in other fields, it is not difficult, with some additional preparation, for educators to move into these fields or for others to move into education. Additional preparation is available to many educators through in-service training programs and opportunities for summer study.

This flexibility is one feature of educational careers that many people find attractive. Another is the security provided by tenure in many educational positions. Educational occupations are excellent opportunities for persons who want to contribute to human services. The schools offer a wide variety of positions to persons interested in working with young people. Interest in a particular subject matter field leads some people to choose careers in teaching, research, or the combination of both that is encouraged in colleges and universities. Others, with abilities for coordination and management, are drawn to educational administration. Like everything else about education, its attractions as a career are changing. It is a field no longer safe for authoritarians: the successful teacher—or administrator—is frequently one who is willing to challenge and be challenged.

The main characteristic shared by all careers in education is their impact on the future, increasing as the responsibilities of the educational system are broadened. The work of all educators is directed to providing children the most thorough and most relevant possible preparation for adult life. Educators influence all aspects of our national life, from social and economic conditions to breadth of international understanding. They influence all aspects of individual life, from vocational competence to self-respect. They also have an increasing amount of influence on the ways they themselves fulfill their functions and the conditions under which they work. As the demands of the future—and the present—on the schools increase, the demands and rewards of careers in education grow with them.

FURTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION

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